



Year: 2010

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DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geomorph.2010.02.019>

Posted at the Zurich Open Repository and Archive, University of Zurich

ZORA URL: <https://doi.org/10.5167/uzh-42967>

Journal Article

Accepted Version

Originally published at:

Egli, M; Brandova, D; Böhlert, R; Favilli, F; Kubik, P W (2010). ¹⁰Be inventories in Alpine soils and their potential for dating land surfaces. *Geomorphology*, 119(1-2):62 - 73.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geomorph.2010.02.019>

¹⁰Be inventories in Alpine soils and their potential for dating land surfaces

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Abstract

To exploit natural sedimentary archives and geomorphic landforms it is necessary to date them first. Landscape evolution of Alpine areas is often strongly related to the activities of glaciers in the Pleistocene and Holocene. At sites where no organic matter for radiocarbon dating exists and where suitable boulders for surface exposure dating (using in situ produced cosmogenic nuclides) are absent, dating of soils could give information about the timing of landscape evolution. This paper explores the applicability of soil dating using the inventory of meteoric ¹⁰Be in Alpine soils. For this purpose, a set of 6 soil profiles in the Swiss and Italian Alps was investigated. The surface at these sites had already been dated (using the radiocarbon technique or the surface exposure determination using IN SITU produced ¹⁰Be). Consequently, a direct comparison of the ages of the soils using METEORIC ¹⁰Be and other dating techniques was made possible. The estimation of ¹⁰Be deposition rates is subject to severe limitations and strongly influences the obtained results. We tested three scenarios using a) the meteoric ¹⁰Be deposition rates as a function of the annual precipitation rate, b) a constant ¹⁰Be input for the Central Alps, and c) as b) but assuming a pre-exposure of the parent material. The obtained ages that are based on the ¹⁰Be inventory in soils and on scenario a)

for the ^{10}Be input agreed reasonably well with the age using surface exposure or radiocarbon dating. The ages obtained from soils using scenario b) produced ages that were mostly too old whereas the approach using scenario c) seemed to yield better results than scenario b). Erosion calculations can, in theory, be performed using the ^{10}Be inventory and ^{10}Be deposition rates. An erosion estimation was possible using scenario a) and c), but not using b). The calculated erosion rates using these scenarios seemed to be plausible with values in the range of 0 - 57 mm/ky. The dating of soils using ^{10}Be has several potential error sources. Analytical errors as well as errors from other parameters such as bulk soil density and soil skeleton content have to be taken into account. The error range was from 8 up to 21%. Furthermore, uncertainties in estimating ^{10}Be deposition rates substantially influence the calculated ages. Relative age estimates and, under optimal conditions, absolute dating can be carried out. Age determination of Alpine soils using ^{10}Be gives another possibility to date surfaces when other methods fail or are not possible at all. It is, however, not straightforward, quite laborious and may consequently have some distinct limitations.

Keywords: Meteoric ^{10}Be , dating, alpine soils, weathering, erosion

Introduction

The analysis and dating of climate-related natural archives allows the estimation of past climate conditions and the rates of geomorphologic and other processes, which in turn also serve as a basis for modelling approaches and predictions.

Natural terrestrial sediment and soil archives or geomorphic features and landforms in the Alps, such as moraines, roches moutonnées, peat bogs etc., are often bound to glacial activity and may bear long-term paleoclimatic information. Glaciers have shaped the alpine landscape which, in

many respects, is directly related to ice retreat and re-advance phases that occurred in the Pleistocene and Holocene. Since the initial work of Penck and Brückner (1909) on Alpine glaciations and the structure of glacier retreat, numerous authors have worked on ice-age stratigraphy (e.g. Keller and Krayss, 1993; Florineth, 1998; Schlüchter, 2004; van Husen, 2004; Ivy-Ochs et al., 2006a,b, 2007), the Lateglacial period of ice decay (e.g. Maisch, 1981; Schoeneich, 1999; Kerschner et al., 1999; Ivy-Ochs et al., 2004, 2008, 2009) and also in detail on Holocene glacier fluctuations in the Alps (Holzhauser, 1984). Dating of geomorphic features (moraines, peat bogs etc.) has often been performed using the radiocarbon technique. The main problem in ^{14}C dating of alpine soils is the lack of datable organic material or imprecise estimates of the age obtained due to the fact that the soils have been reworked. With the improvements in the dating technique using in situ produced cosmogenic isotopes in rock surfaces (surface exposure dating SED; Lal, 1988) the direct determination of moraine ages (Gosse et al., 1995; Ivy-Ochs et al., 1996) became possible, also at sites not having datable organic material. Since then, a great number of studies have been performed with the aim of dating moraines and associated glacier fluctuations using cosmogenic nuclides (compilation in Reuther et al., 2006), especially ^{10}Be . Ivy-Ochs et al. (2006a) provided a summary of exposure-derived ages (using ^{10}Be , ^{26}Al , ^{36}C and ^{21}Ne) for the Lateglacial with a focus on the European Alps. However, critically reviewed, the absolute chronology is still poorly established. It must be taken into consideration that several limitations sometimes render dating of rock boulders, and consequently land surfaces, difficult. According to Ivy-Ochs and Kober (2008) and Gosse and Philips (2001), the sampled object (boulder, clasts or bedrock) surface must have i) undergone single-stage exposure (negligible pre-exposure/inheritance), ii) been continuously exposed in the same position (not shifted), iii) never been significantly covered with sediment, and iv) undergone only minimal surface weathering or erosion (not spalled). The influence of snow on the boulder age may be, furthermore, very significant and clearly exceeds the influence of surface erosion (Böhlert et al., submitted).

Another technique was developed by Schaller et al. (2009a) who were able to derive age constraints from depth profiles dating (soils) of the situ produced cosmogenic nuclides ^{10}Be in quartz from the 0.5 – 1.0 mm fraction. According to these authors, exposure age constraints from boulders are, however, more straightforward for moraines than ages based on depth profile dating. Moraine soils may significantly erode and may be mixed, suggesting that previous weathering and dust accumulation on moraines provide minimum estimates for these processes.

An additional technique is based on the ‘meteoric’ ^{10}Be inventories in soils. In this case, ^{10}Be is produced via interactions of high-energy cosmic radiation with target nuclei in the atmosphere. Rainfall scavenges meteoric cosmogenic ^{10}Be from the atmosphere. Once on earth, it accumulates in surface deposits over time. Several authors (Monaghan et al., 1983; Pavich et al., 1984; Maejima et al., 2004, 2005) have shown that minimum absolute ages can be derived from the inventory of meteoric ^{10}Be in soil profiles. Using this technique, a variety of soils having ages from about 8 ky to 136 ky could be dated. At sites where suitable organic matter for radiocarbon dating does not exist and where appropriate boulders are absent, dating of soils is essential to give information about the timing of landscape evolution.

This paper explores the potentiality of ^{10}Be inventories (meteoric ^{10}Be) for dating soils in alpine environments. The obtained ages using this methodology could be directly compared with those derived either from surface exposure or from radiocarbon analyses of geomorphic land surfaces. Consequently, it was possible to perform a calibration study.

Study sites

Six soil profiles in the Swiss and Italian Alps were selected (Table 1; Figs. 1, 2). The sites have previously-published datasets (soil chemical and physical aspects as well as dating; see Tables 2 – 4). The landscape near the investigation areas has been strongly influenced by former glaciers (Fig.

1) and all the soils (Fig. 2) developed on lateral, recessional or ground moraines consisting of silicatic material (granite or gneiss). Several distinct morainic complexes characterise the readvance phases in the Lateglacial and the Holocene. The timing of deglaciation is known for these sites. The sites became ice-free or were formed in the Holocene and Late Pleistocene (about 3 – 19 ky BP; see Table 4).

The sites encompass different climate (from moderate to alpine) and vegetation zones (mixed forest to alpine grassland). Cambisols or Podzols (IUSS working group WRB, 2006) are the main soil types.

A number of studies have already been performed in and around the investigated regions (Fitze, 1982; Wipf, 2001; Egli and Mirabella, 2001; Zanelli, 2002; Egli et al., 2002, 2003; Maisch et al., 2005; Favilli et al., 2009, 2010; Böhlert et al., submitted). At the investigation areas, Val Mulix (Switzerland), Val di Rabbi (Trentino; Italy) and Schmadri (Switzerland), a wide range of relative and numerical techniques have been applied to date the surfaces (Egli and Mirabella, 2001; Favilli et al., 2009; Böhlert et al., submitted). Radiocarbon dating of peat bogs, buried soils, charcoal fragments and organic residues in soils or ^{10}Be dating of large boulders having prominent quartz veins was performed. Geomorphologic mapping was carried out by Maisch (1981) in the Val Mulix and Albula regions and by Wipf (2001) in the Schmadri region, based on moraine morphology, their morphostratigraphic position and ELA (equilibrium line altitude) depression values. Moraines and roches moutonnées were dated by SED using ^{10}Be (the boulders were chosen in the closest vicinity of the investigated soils; Favilli et al., 2009; Böhlert et al., submitted).

Materials and methods

Soil sampling

128 As soil horizons can be considered to be compartments having typical chemical and mineralogical
129 processes, sampling was bound to the morphology of the soils. Around two to four kilograms of soil
130 material (Hitz et al., 2002) were collected per soil horizon from 6 soil pits. Soil bulk density was
131 determined by a soil core sampler (or by excavated holes having a volume of about 500 – 2000 ml
132 that were backfilled with a measurable volume of quartz sand). Undisturbed soil samples were
133 taken down to the BC or C horizon.

134

135 *Soil chemistry and physics*

136 The soil samples were air-dried: large aggregates being gently broken by hand and sieved to < 2
137 mm. Total C and N contents of the soil were measured by C/H/N analyser (Elementar Vario EL,
138 Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH) using oven-dried and ball-milled fine earth. Total C corre-
139 sponds in our case to organic C due to the absence of any carbonates in the soil. Soil pH (in 0.01 M
140 CaCl₂) was determined on air-dried samples of the fine earth fraction using a soil solution ratio of
141 1:2.5. The oxalate-extractable iron and aluminium fractions (Fe_o, Al_o) were determined according to
142 McKeague et al. (1971) and analysed by AAS (Atomic Absorption Spectrometry – AAnalyst 700,
143 Perkin Elmer, USA). After a pre-treatment of the samples with H₂O₂ (3%), particle size distribution
144 of the soils was measured using a combined method consisting of sieving coarser particles (2000 –
145 32 µm) and measurement of the finer particles (< 32 µm) by means of an X-ray sedimentometer
146 (SediGraph 5100, Micromeritics, Norcross, GA, USA).

147

148 *Age determination of soils using meteoric ¹⁰Be*

149 The inventory of meteoric ¹⁰Be in a soil can be directly related to the soil age (Maejima et al., 2007;
150 Tsai et al., 2007). The ¹⁰Be abundance in a soil profile was estimated assuming that the overwhelm-
151 ing part of ¹⁰Be is adsorbed in the fine earth fraction. The amount is consequently calculated ac-
152 cording to:

$$N = \sum_{a=1}^n (z_w \rho_w C_w f_w) \quad (1)$$

where N corresponds to the abundance of ^{10}Be (inventory), z_w to the thickness of the corresponding soil horizon, ρ_w being the bulk density, C_w to the concentration (fine earth) in the corresponding horizon and f_w to the relative fraction (% by weight) of fine earth.

If the ^{10}Be inventory since the initiation of soil formation is known, then the time soils were exposed to meteoric ^{10}Be flux can be determined using the following equation:

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = q - \lambda N, \text{ with } N = 0 \text{ at } t = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$t = -\frac{1}{\lambda} \ln \left(1 - \lambda \frac{N}{q} \right) \quad (3)$$

where t is the age of soil, λ is the decay constant of ^{10}Be ($4.62 \times 10^{-7}/\text{y}$), N is the inventory of ^{10}Be in time t (atoms/cm²) and q is the annual deposition rate of ^{10}Be (atoms/cm²/y). The measured inventory N is the integral of concentration multiplied by soil density at the depth the profile was sampled (Pavic and Vidic, 1993; Maejima et al., 2004).

^{10}Be measurement of soil samples

To measure the abundance of ^{10}Be in the six profiles, the individual soil horizons (see Table 2) were analysed for their ^{10}Be concentration in the fine earth (fraction < 2mm). ^{10}Be was extracted from the soil samples using a modified method from Horiuchi et al. (1999). 0.4 mg of $^9\text{Be}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ (carrier) was added to 1 – 5 g of soil (< 2 mm fraction). This mixture of carrier and sample was then heated for 3 h at 550°C to remove organic matter. After cooling it was put in a shaker and leached with 8 ml HCl (16% v/v) overnight. The solid part was separated by centrifuge and leached again: the liquid was collected. After a second leaching, the soil residue was disposed of and the obtained solutions mixed together and heated at 80°C until the volume reduced to c. 1 ml. To this sample, 1 ml HNO_3 (65% v/v) and 1 ml HCl (32% v/v) were added and any fine particles removed by centrifugation. NaOH (16% v/v) was added to the sample until it reached a pH value of 2, when 1 ml of conc.

177 EDTA was added. The EDTA solution removes metals (Fe, Mn) in the form of EDTA complexes.
178 NH_4OH was added until a pH value of 8 was obtained and the resulting gel containing $\text{Be}(\text{OH})_2$,
179 $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ and some $\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_2$ and $\text{Mn}(\text{OH})_2$ was precipitated. NaOH solution was added to the gel
180 until the pH value reached 14. The $\text{Be}(\text{OH})_2$ and $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ re-dissolved and the solution containing
181 Be and Al was separated by centrifugation. This procedure was repeated a second time to recover
182 any remaining Be. Once again conc. HCl (32% v/v) was added to the liquid (containing Be) to
183 reach a pH value of 2 and 1 ml of 10% EDTA was added to remove the last traces of Fe and Mn.
184 The $\text{Be}(\text{OH})_2$ and $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ were precipitated with NH_4OH and subsequently centrifuged. If Fe was
185 still present, the gel would have been coloured yellow. HCl (32% v/v) was added until the gel re-
186 dissolved. It was then heated to reduce the volume to c. 1 ml. Any Fe was removed using the anion
187 exchange column; the cleaned solution was heated to near dryness. The Be and Al were separated
188 using two different cation exchange columns. In the first stage the precipitated gel was dissolved in
189 HCl and passed through the first cation exchange column where most of the Al was adsorbed. After
190 evaporation and precipitation the $\text{Be}(\text{OH})_2$ was dissolved in oxalic acid (stage two) and passed
191 through the second cation exchange column which adsorbed the last traces of Al. This second pro-
192 cedure is based on the formation of Al complexes with oxalic acid, and Al is also adsorbed in the
193 column. Pure $\text{Be}(\text{OH})_2$ was precipitated with NH_4OH and subsequently dried at 70 °C. It was calci-
194 nated in an oven for 2 h at 850°C to obtain pure BeO . This BeO was then mixed with Cu powder
195 and pressed into a mass spectrometer target.

196 The $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$ ratios were measured at the ETH Zurich Tandem Accelerator Mass Spectrometry
197 (AMS) facility (Kubik and Christl, 2009) using ETH AMS standards S555 ($^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be} = 95.5 \times 10^{-12}$
198 nominal) and S2007 ($^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be} = 30.8 \times 10^{-12}$ nominal), both associated with a ^{10}Be half-life of 1.51
199 My.

200

201 *Statistics*

202 As the data did not always show a normal distribution, correlation analysis was performed using
203 Pearson's correlation coefficient for normally distributed data and the Spearman's rank correlation
204 coefficient for non-normally distributed ones (Sachs, 1992). A log-transformation of the data was
205 necessary for the multiple regression analysis.

206

207

208 **Results**

209

210 *Physical and chemical soil properties*

211 The soils showed an undisturbed evolution (according to their macromorphology as well as their
212 chemical and physical properties) with no signs of erosion or burial. All soils in the study area have
213 a loam or sandy-loam in the topsoil and a loamy-sand texture in the subsoil (Table 2). The
214 acidification of the soils is pronounced with pH-values in the topsoil generally between 3.0 and 4.0
215 (Table 3). Some of the soils showed clear podzolisation features (Tables 2, 3) with an eluviation
216 and illuviation of Fe, Al and sometimes soil organic matter (SOM). All soils have a distinct amount
217 of soil skeleton (material with a diameter > 2 mm) that usually increases with increasing soil depth
218 (except for the Meggerwald site) and can be up to almost 70% by weight. These values are typical
219 for moraines in Alpine areas.

220

221 *¹⁰Be in the soil profiles*

222 Meteoric ¹⁰Be infiltrates into soils and is adsorbed along the profile. Highest ¹⁰Be concentrations in
223 the fine earth (up to $> 10 \times 10^8$ atoms/g) were measured in the surface horizons. Usually, the ¹⁰Be
224 concentrations decreased with increasing soil depth (Fig. 3). At several sites an increase of the ¹⁰Be
225 concentration in the Bs or Bhs horizon was detected, which indicated an active translocation of ¹⁰Be
226 within the soil profile. This translocation is due to podzolisation processes where ¹⁰Be migrates to-
227 gether with Fe, Al and/or SOM to greater soil depths.

228

229 *¹⁰Be deposition rates*

230 To calculate the soil age, the deposition rate of ¹⁰Be must be known (see Equations 2 and 3). Be-
231 cause the ¹⁰Be deposition rates are unknown for the investigated sites, they had to be estimated.
232 Two different concepts in estimating the ¹⁰Be deposition rates exist.

233 1) Maejima et al. (2005) showed that the deposition rate of ¹⁰Be is primarily a function of the
234 amount of precipitation. Average concentrations of ¹⁰Be in rainfall are near $1 - 1.5 \times 10^4$ atoms/cm³
235 (Monaghan et al., 1985/1986; Brown et al., 1989; Maejima et al., 2005). Annual mean ¹⁰Be concen-
236 trations in New Zealand rain ranged from 2.1 to 2.9×10^4 atoms/cm³ (Graham et al., 2003) and in
237 France from about $1.5 - 4.4 \times 10^4$ atoms/cm³ (Raisbeck et al., 1979). The annual deposition rate for
238 the past thousands of years is mostly unknown. Heikkilä et al. (2008a) considered existing ¹⁰Be re-
239 cords from Greenland and Antarctica and were able to show that slightly increased concentrations
240 were recorded during the Maunder Minimum (MM) period, 1645 – 1715, when solar activity was
241 very low and the climate colder (Little Ice Age). ¹⁰Be deposition rates were seemingly subject to
242 some variations in the past. Vonmoos et al. (2006) showed that the measured ¹⁰Be fluxes (derived
243 from the GRIP ice core) have some variation, but that the integrated average smoothes the observed
244 variation due to changes in solar activity to a quasi-permanent long-term average value (over the
245 last 10 ky). ¹⁰Be concentrations during the MM period were about $1.5 - 1.7 \times 10^4$ atoms/cm³ (in
246 Greenland) and 3.9×10^4 atoms/cm³ (in Antarctica). The values given by Monaghan et al.
247 (1985/1986) are, therefore, reasonable and were taken for this investigation.

248 2) Willenbring and von Blanckenburg (2009) argue, however, that in coastal and island settings
249 where the atmospheric transport time is fast and ¹⁰Be and ⁷Be concentrations in rain are signifi-
250 cantly correlated with precipitation rate, the yearly flux of meteoric ¹⁰Be is independent of the rain
251 rate. This is, consequently, not in agreement with measurements of Graham et al. (2003) and
252 Maejima et al. (2005). The geometry of the Earth's magnetic field produces a predictable latitudinal
253 variation. The combination of increased flux toward the poles and the increasing thickness of the

atmosphere for low latitudes and the low pressures at the poles results in a maximum at mid-latitudes (Willenbring and von Blanckenburg, 2009).

To see the effect of the ^{10}Be deposition rates on the measurement of soil age, the age estimation using ^{10}Be in soils was done using both approaches:

- ^{10}Be deposition fluxes derived from the amount of precipitation and
- ^{10}Be deposition fluxes derived from a modelling approach using constant fluxes for the Central Alps (Willenbring and von Blanckenburg, 2009). This modelling approach for the Central Alps yields a deposition rate of about $10 \times 10^5 \text{ atom/cm}^2/\text{y}$ (see also Fig. 4).

Using the first approach, the deposition rates of ^{10}Be in our study sites range from $1.2 \times 10^6 \text{ atoms/cm}^2/\text{y}$ (1000 mm/y rainfall) to $2.4 \times 10^6 \text{ atoms/cm}^2/\text{y}$ (2000 mm/y rainfall). The second approach gives for all sites the same deposition rate of $1.0 \times 10^6 \text{ atoms/cm}^2/\text{y}$ (Table 5).

Age determination using meteoric ^{10}Be

In the soils, $120 - 300 \times 10^8 \text{ }^{10}\text{Be} \text{ atoms/cm}^2$ are accumulated (Table 5). Errors in the quantification of the ^{10}Be abundance are due to analytical errors (AMS) of ^{10}Be determination and due to density and soil skeleton measurements (Table 5). An estimate of the error range was performed by means of the maximum error. The range of error Δf can be estimated by the mean analytical error (^{10}Be) and the error Δy introduced due to soil analyses (density, soil skeleton).

$$\Delta f = \Delta x + \Delta y \quad (4)$$

The ratio $\Delta f / f_{x,y}$ (with $f_{x,y}$ as the measured value) gives the relative error that equals the sum of the individual mean errors. The error for the density and the soil skeleton determinations was estimated to be 5% (for each parameter). In soil horizons having no soil skeleton the corresponding error was considered to be negligible. These assumptions are very conservative (Desaules and Dahinden, 2000). Accordingly, the estimated errors of the ^{10}Be inventory and, subsequently, the derived surface ages vary from 8 to c. 21%.

279 An additional variability is introduced by the selection of the ^{10}Be deposition rates scenarios (see
280 above). If a ^{10}Be deposition rate which depends on the annual amount of precipitation is used, then
281 the calculated ages vary between 6.0 and 19.2 ky (= scenario (a)). Older ages (= scenario (b)) are
282 obtained (12.6 – 30.3 ky) using a constant meteoric ^{10}Be flux for the Central Alps (Table 5). Ac-
283 cording to Table 4, the soils have a decreasing age with Meggerwald > Val di Rabbi > Val Mulix >
284 Schmadri profile 1 = Morteratsch > Schmadri profile 2. Using a precipitation-dependent meteoric
285 ^{10}Be flux (scenario (a)), the following sequence is derived: Meggerwald > Val Mulix > Val di
286 Rabbi > Schmadri profile 1 > Morteratsch > Schmadri profile 2. This sequence is quite similar to
287 the expected one (see Table 4). Assuming a constant ^{10}Be flux for the Central Alps (scenario (b))
288 the age decrease is Meggerwald > Schmadri profile 1 > Val Mulix > Val di Rabbi > Schmadri pro-
289 file 2 > Morteratsch. This last sequence differs substantially from the expected one. In theory, it
290 might be that the glacial till (morainic material) was already exposed to the atmosphere or mixed
291 with material that was exposed. Consequently, an additional approach (= scenario (c)) that assumed
292 a pre-exposure was applied. The ^{10}Be concentration in the parent material was assumed to account
293 for this pre-exposure and was consequently subtracted from the measured concentrations in the
294 other soil horizons. The ^{10}Be inventory was then calculated on this basis. As in scenario (b), a con-
295 stant ^{10}Be deposition rate was assumed. Using scenario (c) the following age sequence is derived:
296 Meggerwald > Val Mulix > Schmadri profile 1 > Val di Rabbi > Schmadri profile 2 > Morteratsch.
297 This scenario fits slightly better to the expected one than scenario (b), but major discrepancies still
298 exist.

299

300

301 Discussion

302

303 *^{10}Be in the soils*

304 Maejima et al. (2004, 2005) observed a positive correlation between the clay content and the ^{10}Be
 305 concentration in the soils. The distribution pattern of ^{10}Be along the soil profile could be mainly at-
 306 tributed to the amount of clays. At our sites, such a correlation was not detected ($R = -0.18$; $p >$
 307 0.1). This might be due to the rather low amount of clays and to the stony character of most of the
 308 sites. However, a significant correlation between ^{10}Be and the oxalate-extractable fractions of Fe
 309 ($R_{\text{Spearman}} = 0.35$, $p = 0.039$) and Al ($R_{\text{Spearman}} = 0.37$, $p = 0.030$) could be found. Furthermore, soil
 310 organic matter was significantly correlated with ^{10}Be ($R_{\text{Spearman}} = 0.46$, $p = 0.007$). The pH-value
 311 was correlated only at the 10% significance level. A log transformation of the datasets made a mul-
 312 tiple regression possible. ^{10}Be can be described as:

$$313 \quad \log[^{10}\text{Be}] = 8.2572 - 0.239 \log[\text{Fe}_o] + 0.2809 \log[\text{Al}_o] + 0.3146 \log[\text{org. C}] \quad (5)$$

314 with $R = 0.50$ and $p = 0.04$

315

316 The distribution pattern and mobility of ^{10}Be within the soil profile are thus controlled to a certain
 317 extent by SOM and weakly crystalline oxides and hydroxides.

318 The great variability of the ^{10}Be depth profiles can be explained by complex geochemical and trans-
 319 port mechanisms (Morris, 1991; Tsai et al., 2008). Eluvial and illuvial transport mechanisms seem
 320 to be crucial — in Podzols as well as in Luvisols (where a clay-mediated transport takes place;
 321 Pavich et al., 1984; Tsai et al., 2008). Leaching of ^{10}Be from the soil column may lead to an under-
 322 estimation of the age. Kaolinite and dioctahedral vermiculite, however, seem to be a very efficient
 323 trap for ^{10}Be (Pavich et al., 1985). In the investigated soils, smectite, vermiculite, chlorite, mica,
 324 kaolinite, HIV (hydroxy-interlayered vermiculites), HIS (hydroxy-interlayered smectites) and inter-
 325 stratified minerals prevail in the clay fraction (Egli and Mirabella, 2001; Egli et al., 2002, 2003;
 326 Favilli et al., 2009). Due to the given distribution of ^{10}Be in the soil profiles, a major loss of ^{10}Be
 327 with the acidic percolate can be excluded due to the sharp decrease of ^{10}Be with soil depth. A
 328 physical movement down-profile of clay particles containing adsorbed ^{10}Be is also rather improb-
 329 able due to the acidic soil conditions (which usually inhibit clay transport). Furthermore, in all

330 soils the clay content is low and no increase with soil depth could be measured. The highest amount
331 of ^{10}Be is found in the topsoil and Bs (or Bhs) horizon and seems to be bound to SOM, Fe- and Al-
332 oxyhydroxides.

333

334 *^{10}Be deposition rates*

335 Probably the most difficult and challenging issue in dating soils using ^{10}Be is the estimation of ^{10}Be
336 deposition rates for a specific site. There is, unfortunately, no consensus to be obtained from the
337 literature of the exact effect of precipitation on the ^{10}Be flux in an area. The variability in the ^{10}Be
338 concentration from precipitation measurements reflects short-term fluctuations in precipitation rate,
339 stratosphere/troposphere exchange, magnetic field strength, etc. (Monaghan et al., 1985/86; Graham
340 et al., 2003, Willenbring and von Blanckenburg, 2009). Several modelling attempts were made to
341 predict ^{10}Be deposition rates on a global scale. Field et al. (2006) used the Goddard Institute for
342 Space Studies ModelE (GISS) general circulation model (GCM) and Heikkilä (2007) used the
343 European Centre Hamburg Model (ECHAM5) GCM in combination with Masarik and Beer's
344 (1999) production functions. Willenbring and von Blanckenburg (2009) listed the measured ^{10}Be
345 deposition rates and modelled values for a few sites (see Fig. 4). In some cases, the model predic-
346 tions match the measured deposition rates quite well, but in some cases not. It seems that the mod-
347 elling approach tends to slightly underestimate the deposition rates at high ^{10}Be influxes.

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349 *Validity of the ^{10}Be ages*

350 The calculated ages using ^{10}Be in soils could be compared to available ages of the same geomorphic
351 features (Table 4). The correlation between the ages derived from ^{10}Be measurements and the ex-
352 pected age is given in Fig. 5. The calculated ages using a ^{10}Be deposition rate based on the amount
353 of precipitation (scenario (a)) agree quite well with the expected age of the landform (Fig. 5a).
354 Some discrepancies exist at the site Val di Rabbi where a major difference between the expected
355 age and the ^{10}Be -age of the soil was detected and at the site Schmadri (profile 2) where instead of

3.6 ky an age of 6.0 ky was calculated. Erosion, leaching and accumulation processes in soils affect the calculated ^{10}Be -age (Lal, 2001; Maejima, 2005; Tsai et al., 2008). Erosion eliminates accumulated ^{10}Be . In addition, the soil components interact with percolating acidic solutions and, as a consequence, adsorbed ^{10}Be may move out of the considered system (Tsai et al., 2008). Both processes lead to an underestimation of the age. In contrast, accumulation of soil material imports ^{10}Be . Furthermore, soil material may have been pre-exposed and consequently a too high amount of meteoric ^{10}Be may have accumulated. This last process has most probably occurred at the Schmadri profile 2 site. The moraine here was formed due to a small re-advance of the glacier (Wipf, 2001) 3600 y BP. After the Egesen glacial state (Younger Dryas; ~ 11 ky BP), the glacier retreated rapidly to the present-day situation. As the re-advance occurred around 3600 y BP, we hypothesise that pre-exposed material (having an age of about 11 ky) was probably mixed with fresh, un-weathered material. The ages calculated assuming a constant meteoric ^{10}Be flux (scenario (b)) agreed in only two cases with the age obtained from SED or radiocarbon dating (sites Morteratsch and Val di Rabbi; Fig. 5b). For all other sites, the estimated ages of the soils were definitely too old. An almost similar age for Meggerwald (which is definitely the oldest soil) and Schmadri profile 1 (which corresponds to the Egesen glacial stage; Wipf, 2001) was derived. In our case, using the approach with a constant meteoric ^{10}Be influx, the results obtained were not reasonable. The results based on scenario (c) fit better with the expected ages (Fig. 5c). However, the best results were obtained using the first scenario (a), i.e. with meteoric ^{10}Be deposition rates dependent on the amount of precipitation. Consequently, the deposition rates of ^{10}Be substantially influence the calculated age of the soils. The relation between the error of ^{10}Be deposition rates and the derived age is non-linear (Fig. 6). Relatively small errors have a substantial effect on the age calculations.

379 *Soil erosion rates*

Soil macromorphology as well as soil chemistry (see Tables 2, 3) did not give any evidence that the soils were subjected to erosion. Some erosion, however, might have occurred which is only detect-

able using a “tracer” such as ^{10}Be . Over the past few years, the technique of cosmogenic nuclides has been extended to determine long-term erosion rates on a catchment scale or on single soil profiles. For a recent summary of the technique and new applications see von Blanckenburg (2006) and Schaller et al. (2009a). The nuclide concentration is inversely proportional to the catchment area erosion rate and the soil erosion rate. The assumption of a steady state is often an essential prerequisite of this technique (Schaller and Ehlers, 2006). In addition, short-term erosion rates can be estimated, for example, using ^{137}Cs (Collins et al., 2001). Knowing the age of a landform and having the calculated ^{10}Be age derived from soils, soil erosion can be estimated by comparing the effective abundance of ^{10}Be measured in the soil with the theoretically necessary abundance for the expected age. To evaluate a possible erosion of the soils, we assume that the material is eroded from the surface at a constant rate E (Maejima et al., 2005). Equation (3) can be extended to:

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$$t_{corr} = -\frac{1}{\lambda} \left(1 - \lambda \frac{N}{q - \rho E m} \right) \quad (6)$$

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where m is the measured concentration of ^{10}Be in the top eroding horizons (atoms/g), ρ is the bulk density (g/cm^3) of the top horizons and t_{corr} the correct (expected) age. Erosion rates are obtained from the difference $\Delta t = t_{corr} - t$ (Equations 3 and 6) where the parameters Δt and t are known.

Using the approach with meteoric ^{10}Be deposition rates that depend on the precipitation amount (scenario a), the calculated erosion ranges lie within $< 1 - 18.4 \text{ mm/ky}$ (Table 6). These values are low but possible. Schaller et al. (2009b) determined erosion rates from moraine ridges in the order of $8 - 23 \text{ mm/ky}$. Although a comparison between moraine and catchment-wide erosion is difficult, it can give at least an indication about a possible range. Our calculated erosion rates are similar to the results of Granger et al. (2001), where catchment erosion rates at Adams Peak and Antelope Lake (north-eastern Sierra Nevada, CA, USA) were in the range between 15 and 60 mm/ky . Schaller et al. (2001) measured $20 - 100 \text{ mm/ky}$ erosion rates for middle European river catch-

ments. In these studies, an averaged erosion rate is obtained over a larger area. The investigated alpine soils, however, developed on stable surfaces and partially at almost flat positions. Vegetation as well as the stony character of the sites render them much less susceptible to erosion. Boulders also shield the underlying soil from erosion (Granger et al., 2001). A high soil skeleton content as well as vegetation cover and roots prevent soils from erosion (Richter, 1998). No erosion rates can be derived using the approach with a constant meteoric ^{10}Be influx (the ^{10}Be inventory in soils is in this case $>$ expected inventory). Assuming a pre-exposure of the parent material and a constant ^{10}Be influx, the calculated erosion rates lie between 1 and 57 mm/ky (Table 6). Although the maximum rates are rather high, the results are in a plausible range.

An additional approach to calculate erosion rates is the one proposed by Lal (2001) using:

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$$E = z_0 K_E \quad (7)$$

and:

$$K_E = \frac{N_D}{N_S} \left[\frac{Q + q_a}{N_D} \right] - \lambda \quad (8)$$

where E = erosion rate, z_0 = thickness of topsoil horizons (comprising O and A horizon), K_E = first order rate constant for removal of soil from the topsoil layer, N_D = ^{10}Be inventory in the D layer (= remainder of the soil profile comprising B and C horizons; atoms/cm²), N_S = ^{10}Be inventory in topsoil horizons (atoms/cm²), Q = flux of atmospheric ^{10}Be into the topsoil (atoms/cm²/y), q_a = flux of accreted aeolian ^{10}Be (atoms/cm²/y).

To treat the limited data available for ^{10}Be , the aeolian addition of ^{10}Be with dust is neglected although it might be appreciable in some cases (Lal, 2001). Using the approach of Lal (2001), high erosion rates were calculated that seem to be rather unrealistic. For the investigated soils, the erosion rates would be 100 mm/ky for Val di Rabbi, 45 mm/ky for Schmadri profile 1, 82 mm/ky for Schmadri profile 2, 180 mm/ky for Val Mulix, 95mm/ky for Meggerwald and 36 mm/ky for Morteratsch. Tsai et al. (2008) calculated an erosion rate in the order of 7 – 17 mm/ky for soils of a

432 terrace sequence with an age of about 100 – 400 ky — values that correspond fairly well to our in-
433 vestigated soils. Using the calculated erosion rates according to Lal (2001), unrealistic soil ages
434 were also obtained (using Equation 6): 66 ky for the Schmadri profile 1. For all other soils the term
435 $\left(\frac{N}{q - \rho Em} \right)$ in Equation 6 became negative and no age could be calculated.

436 A basic assumption of Lal (2001) is that the soils are in a steady-state condition — the B horizon,
437 for instance, should not change its thickness — which is not valid for the rather young, alpine soils.
438 Alpine soils have evolved over the last 20 ky and soil thickness is still changing. Furthermore, the
439 Lal-approach considers only an average soil density (using the same density for the topsoils as well
440 as for the subsoil), which is also an excessively simplified approach.

441 In contrast to the “open system” assumptions used here, Lal et al. (1991) proposed a “closed sys-
442 tem” model for soil age determination, in which the $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$ ratio in authigenic soil minerals lock
443 at the time of formation. Age calculations assume a closed system with a decrease of the $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$
444 ratio from the C- to the B-horizon. Barg et al. (1997) suggested that the $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$ ratios in authi-
445 genic phases can be used to obtain useful age models for soils younger than 10 – 15 My. $^{10}\text{Be}/^9\text{Be}$
446 ratio for soil mineral phases are, however, not available for our studied soils.

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449 Conclusions

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451 In this study we tried to derive surface ages using ^{10}Be in soils. We were able to compare the ob-
452 tained ages with existing age determinations (radiocarbon, surface exposure dating). We obtained
453 the following main findings:

- 454 - Meteoric ^{10}Be has been involved in soil processes such as eluviation and illuviation (due to
455 podzolisation).

- Mass changes of ^{10}Be in the investigated soil profile (erosion, leaching and accumulation processes) may affect the determined age.
- The uncertainties using the ^{10}Be inventory in soils were substantial and varied in the range of 8 – 21%, because analytical errors as well as errors from other parameters such as bulk soil density and soil skeleton content have to be taken into account.
- A main problem in age determination of soils using ^{10}Be is the difficulty of acquiring an appropriate estimation of meteoric ^{10}Be deposition rates. Uncertainties in the estimate of the ^{10}Be deposition rates substantially influence the derived age.
- The scenario in which meteoric ^{10}Be inputs to soils were used on the basis of annual precipitation rates and were compared to the ^{10}Be inventory in the soils produced a reasonably good fit with the ages obtained from SED or radiocarbon dating. The scenario having a constant atmospheric ^{10}Be flux failed to adequately predict the soil age and erosion rates. Assuming a pre-exposure of the soils to meteoric ^{10}Be flux provided better results compared with the scenario having only a constant meteoric ^{10}Be input.
- Similarly to surface exposure dating using ^{10}Be , the problem of pre-exposure exists. At one of our investigated sites, a pre-exposure to meteoric ^{10}Be flux was most probably the cause for the too-high age measured.
- A relative age estimate and under optimal conditions a numerical dating using ^{10}Be in soils can be, nonetheless, carried out.
- ^{10}Be is a useful tracer for determining soil formation rates and erosion. A steady-state approach for young, alpine soils (< 25 ky) is, however, not suitable to estimate erosion rates. The whole soil system is not yet close to or not long enough close to a quasi-steady state.
- The atmospheric ^{10}Be approach gives another possibility for dating surfaces when other methods fail or are not possible at all. The dating of surfaces using ^{10}Be is, however, laborious and has strong limitations. Our results are based on 6 soil profiles. More investigations would be necessary to underpin our findings.

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Acknowledgements

We would like to express our appreciation to B. Kägi for his assistance in the laboratory. This study was supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation grant number 20-109565/1 and the “Stiftung für wissenschaftliche Forschung an der Universität Zürich”. We are, furthermore, indebted to three unknown reviewers and the editor Andrew Plater for their helpful comments on an earlier version of the manuscript.

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. Impression of the investigation sites with the main geomorphic features (moraines) and sampling sites. LGM = Lateglacial maximum; 1850 and 1857 moraines correspond to the Little Ice Age. A: Val di Rabbi; B: Morteratsch (air photo from C. Rothenbühler), C: Schmadri with C1 with a detailed picture of the Holocene-aged and 1850 moraines (Wipf, 2001). The Younger Dryas moraine is curtly outside the photo; C2: Overview Schmadri and glacier stages (Google Earth), D: Val Mulix, E: Meggerwald (photo taken from wandersite; <http://www.wandersite.ch>; Ursula Brem).

Fig. 2. Profile photos of the investigated soils. A) Val di Rabbi; B) Morteratsch (photo: P. Fitze); C) Schmadri, profile 1; D) Schmadri profile 2; E) Val Mulix; F) Meggerwald (Photo: M. Achermann).

Fig. 3. Depth profiles (with horizon depth and designation) showing the accumulated meteoric ^{10}Be in the soils.

Fig. 4. Correlation between measured ^{10}Be deposition rates (data from Brown et al., 1992; Graham et al., 2003; Maejima et al., 2005; Vonmoos et al., 2006; Ljung et al., 2007; Zhou et al., 2007; Belmaker et al., 2008; Heikkilä et al., 2008b) and modelled fluxes (according to Field et al., 2006; Heikkilä et al., 2007; Willenbring and von Blanckenburg, 2009).

Fig. 5. Correlation between ^{10}Be ages (and uncertainty range) derived from soil analyses and expected surface age (reference surface age; derived either from surface exposure dating or from radiocarbon analyses; see also Table 4); a) using ^{10}Be deposition rates as a function of

the annual amount of precipitation, b) constant ^{10}Be deposition fluxes for the Central Alps, c) like b) and assuming a background ^{10}Be level in the parent material.

Fig. 6. Effect of errors of ^{10}Be deposition rates estimation (error propagation) on the calculated surface age.

Figure 1
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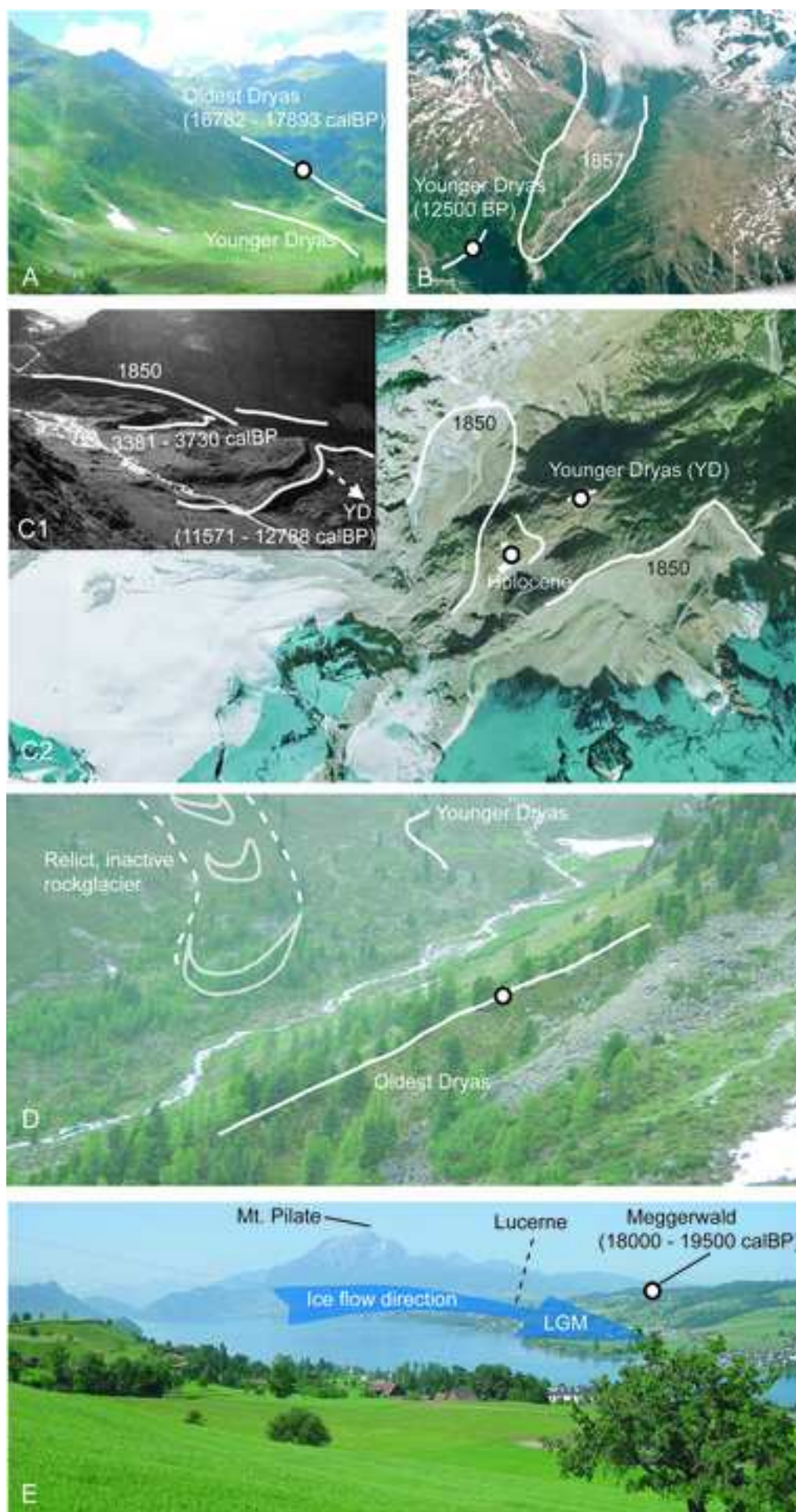


Figure 2
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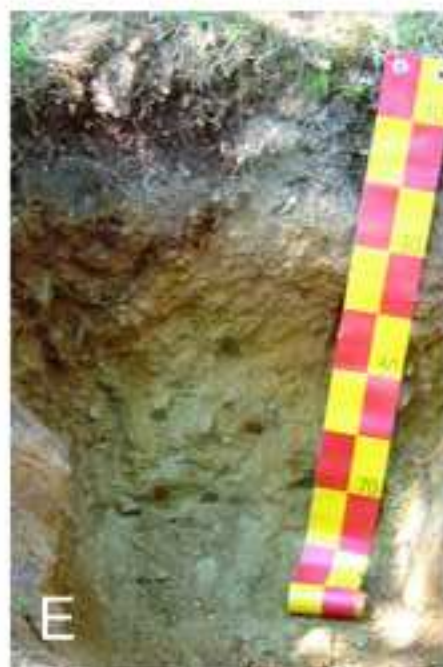


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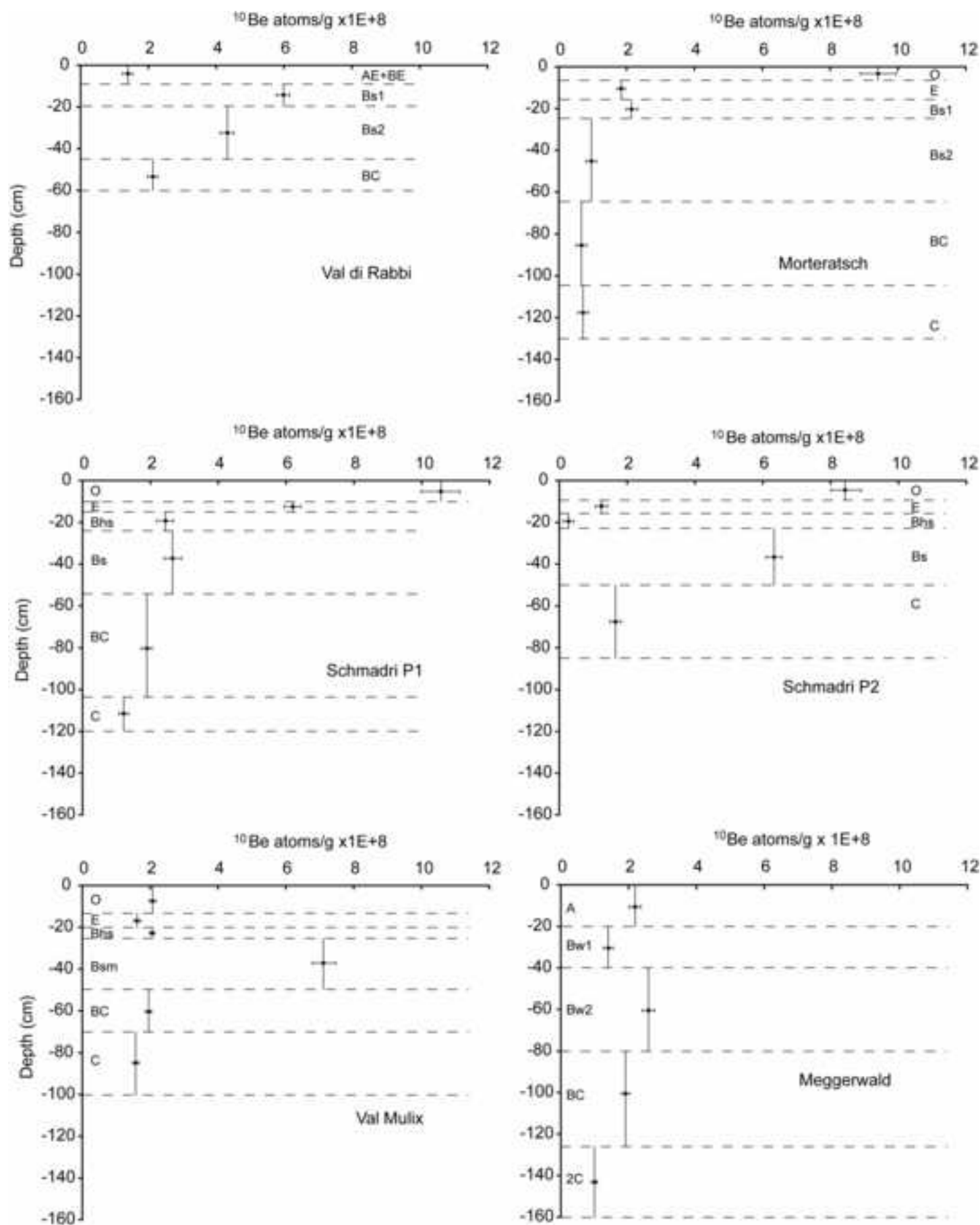


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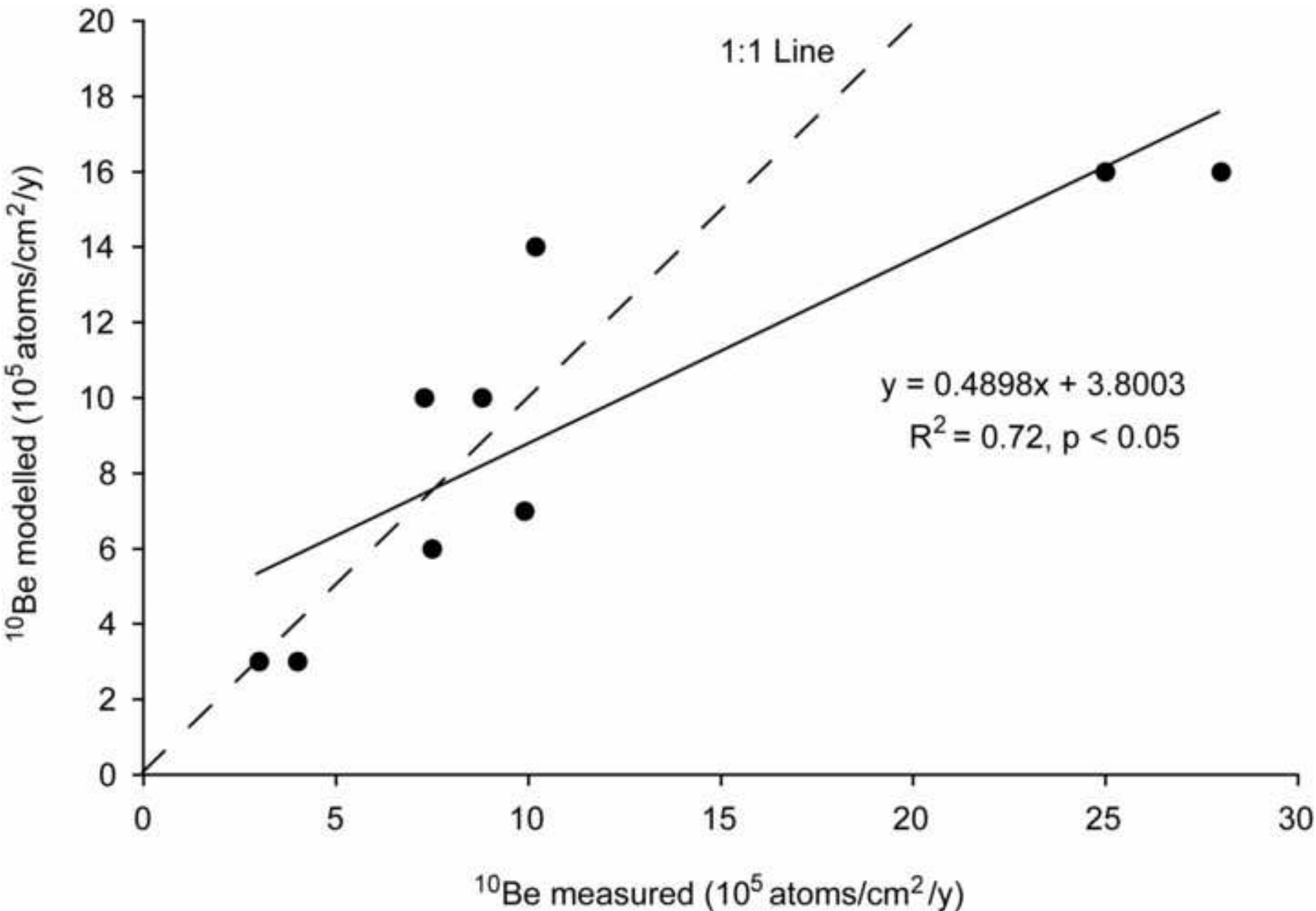


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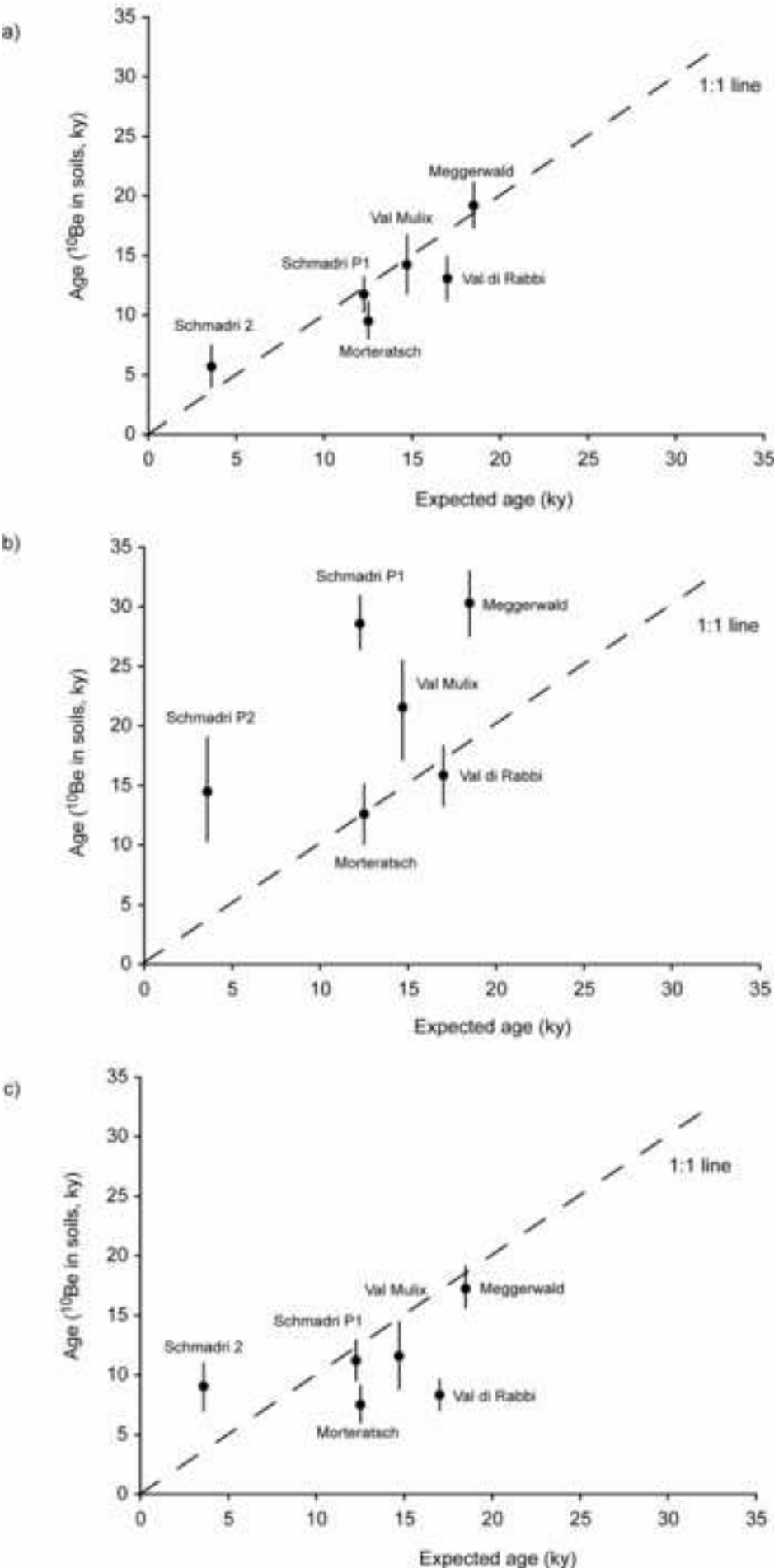


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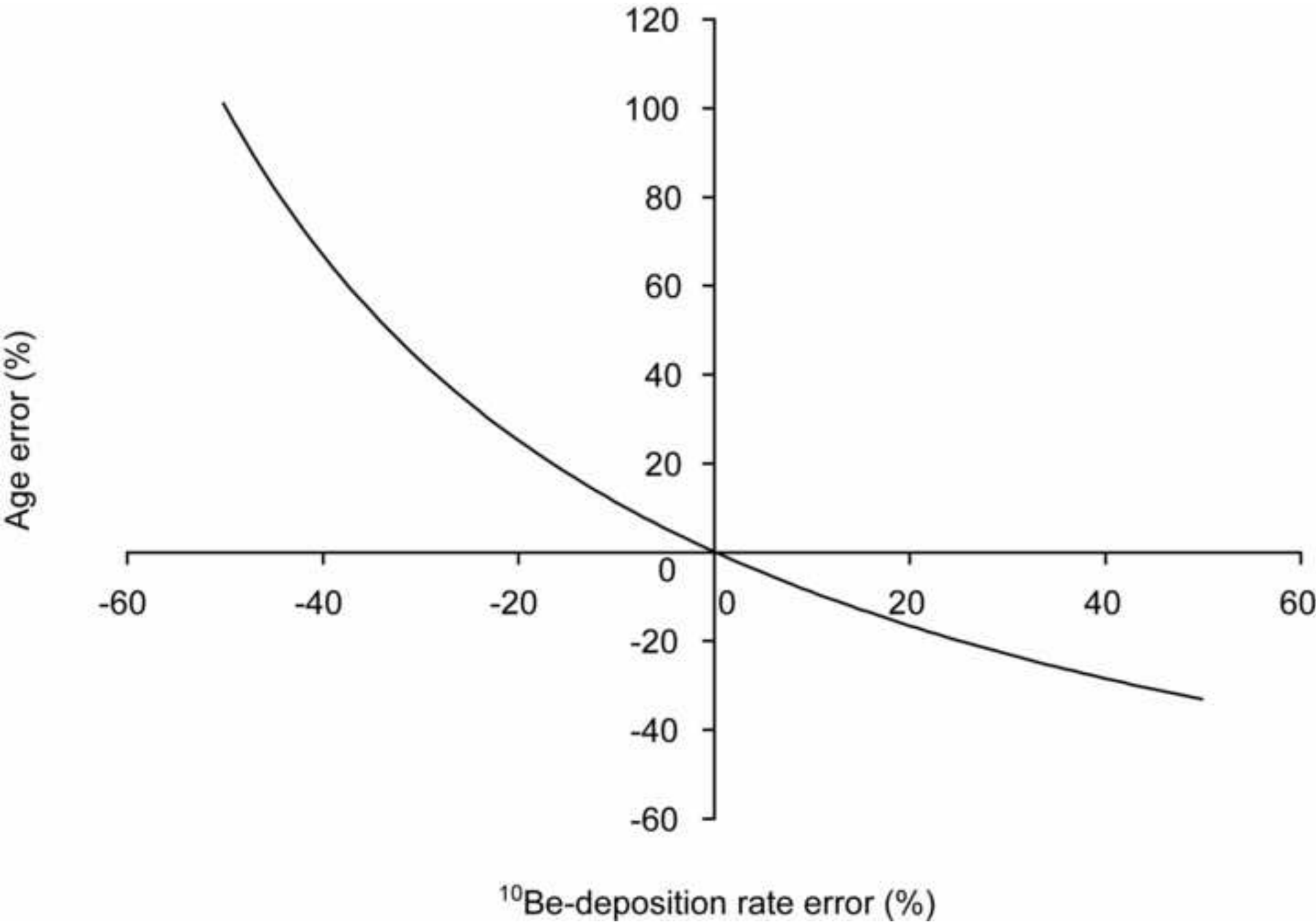


Table 1

Table 1
Characteristics of the study sites

Site	Coordinates ¹ (N/E)	Elevation (m asl)	Dip direction (°N)	Slope (%)	MAAT ² (°C)	MAP ² (mm/y)	Parent material	Location	Late- and postglacial chronozone	Vegetation	Land use	WRB (IUSS Working Group 2006)
Val di Rabbi	46°22' / 10°45'	2100	60	32	1.8	1100	Paragneiss rich till	Lateral moraine	Oldest Dryas	<i>Larix decidua</i> / <i>Juniperus communis</i>	Natural forest	Entic Podzol
Morteratsch	46°26' / 9°57'	1980	350	10	0.5	1100	Granite rich till	Lateral moraine	Egesen	<i>Larici-Piceetum</i>	Natural forest	Haplic Podzol
Schmadri, profile 1	46°34' / 8°21'	2035	350	<5	0.5	2000	Granite rich till	Lateral moraine	Egesen	<i>Festucetum</i>	Natural grassland	Albic Podzol
Schmadri, profile 2	46°34' / 8°20'	2065	20	<5	0.5	2000	Granite rich till	End moraine	Holocene	<i>Festucetum</i>	Natural grassland	Entic Podzol
Val Mulix	46°34' / 9°45'	2100	35	19	-1.1	1250	Granite rich till	Lateral moraine	Oldest Dryas	<i>Larici-Piceetum</i>	Natural forest	Albic Podzol
Meggerwald	47°04' / 8°22'	614	325	<10	8.1	1300	Granite rich till	Ground moraine	LGM - Oldest Dryas	<i>Dryopterido- Abietetum (Myrtillo- Abietetum)</i>	Managed forest	Dystric Cambisol

¹World geodetic system (WGS84)

²MAAT = mean annual air temperature, MAP = mean annual precipitation (according to Leidlmair, 1996; EDI, 1992; Schwarb et al., 2000).

Table 2

Table 2
Physical and morphological characteristics of the soils (Favilli et al., 2009; Egli et al., 2009; Egli and Mirabella, 2001; Egli et al., 2003; Böhlert et al., submitted).

Site/profile	Soil horizon	Depth cm	Munsell colour (moist)	Skeleton w.-%	Bulk density g/cm ³	Sand %	Silt %	Clay %
Val di Rabbi	AE	0-4	10YR 3/3	5	0.91	46	28	26
	BE	4-8	5YR 4/4	11	0.91	52	28	20
	Bs1	8-20	7.5YR 4/4	51	0.74	58	29	14
	Bs2	20-45	10YR 4/4	45	1.16	67	28	5
	BC	45-60	10YR 5/4	34	1.41	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Morteratsch	O	0-5	7.5YR 3/1	14	0.80	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	E	5-15	7.5YR 4/3	30	1.34	54	38	8
	Bs1	15-25	7.5YR 4/4	55	1.54	79	18	3
	Bs2	25-65	10YR 4/6	57	1.67	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	BC	65-105	10YR 6/4	53	1.71	78	19	3
	C	105-130	10YR 6/3	67	1.74	78	19	3
Schmadri Profile 1	O	0-10	10YR 2/1	0	0.39	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	E	10-16	7.5YR 4/2	7	1.09	54	33	13
	Bhs	16-24	7.5YR 2/2	23	1.01	49	31	19
	Bs	24-55	7.5YR 3/4	25	0.94	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	BC	55-105	10YR 5/4	26	1.54	74	21	5
	C	105-120	10YR 6/4	42	1.70	82	13	5
Schmadri Profile 2	O	0-8	10YR 3/1	5	0.57	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	E	8-15	10YR 4/1	25	0.77	54	30	16
	Bhs	15-22	10YR 2/2	27	1.36	51	32	17
	Bs	22-50	10YR4/4	73	1.76	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.

	C	50-85	10YR 7/4	80	1.89	78	17	5
Val Mulix	O	0-13	5YR 1.7/1	3	0.37	50	39	11
	E	13-20	7.5YR 1.7/1	29	0.88	49	38	13
	Bhs	20-23	5YR 2/2	21	0.90	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Bsm	23-50	5YR 3/4	61	1.75	82	15	3
	BC	50-70	10YR 5/4	54	1.68	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	C	70-100	10YR 6/3	61	1.75	81	16	3
Meggerwald								
	A	0-20	7.5YR 2/3	13	0.87	48	35	17
	Bw1	20-40	10YR 4/4	20	1.11	46	39	15
	Bw2	40-80	10YR 4/4	26	1.42	49	38	14
	BC	80-130	10YR 5/4	9	1.59	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	2C	>130	10YR 6/4	0	1.59	63	28	10

n.d. = not determined

Table 3

Table 3
Chemical characteristics of the soils (Favilli et al., 2009; Egli et al., 2009; Egli and Mirabella, 2001; Egli et al., 2003; Böhlert et al., submitted).

Site/profile	Soil horizon	pH (CaCl ₂)	Org. C g/kg	Fed ¹⁾ g/kg	Ald ¹⁾ g/kg	Feo ²⁾ g/kg	Alo ²⁾ g/kg
Val di Rabbi	AE	3.7	103.7	15.90	2.50	5.57	1.73
	BE	3.6	61.0	20.50	2.80	6.06	1.91
	Bs1	4.1	39.4	44.10	14.70	19.62	10.27
	Bs2	4.4	17.0	21.40	7.30	9.37	5.84
	BC	4.5	7.5	6.90	5.60	1.67	4.04
Morteratsch	O	3.3	176.4	3.47	0.76	0.69	0.56
	E	3.3	16.4	3.87	0.75	0.27	0.56
	Bs1	4.4	8.9	5.01	3.56	1.40	5.47
	Bs2	4.7	1.7	3.78	1.44	0.82	1.80
	BC	4.9	0	3.47	1.11	0.40	1.16
	C	4.9	0	3.28	0.83	0.33	0.90
Schmadri Profile 1	O	3.9	383.3	4.59	2.71	3.26	2.10
	E	3.7	22.3	1.83	0.77	0.45	0.84
	Bhs	3.8	113.1	46.23	10.91	29.65	10.21
	Bs	4.1	42.6	18.3	23.62	11.43	19.5
	BC	4.5	9.5	7.83	4.37	2.67	4.48
	C	4.7	2.2	4.84	1.65	1.23	1.48
Schmadri Profile 2	O	3.5	142.8	3.58	1.66	1.67	1.90
	E	3.7	69.1	9.81	3.54	4.14	3.36
	Bhs	3.8	112.6	13.08	7.74	7.28	7.61
	Bs	4.3	45.5	20.78	12.92	11.72	13.38
	C	4.7	6.0	2.79	2.41	1.41	2.32

Val Mulix	O	2.7	202.8	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	E	3.2	45.9	5.32	3.31	2.36	2.92
	Bhs	3.5	50.5	17.91	8.48	10.30	7.03
	Bsm	4.4	28.3	15.07	15.93	6.29	20.05
	BC	4.4	3.9	2.84	2.54	1.20	3.25
	C	4.6	2.3	1.69	1.66	0.79	2.04
Meggerwald							
	A	3.8	35.0	10.91	5.78	5.51	4.75
	Bw1	4.1	11.0	11.13	4.10	3.89	3.41
	Bw2	4.3	6.0	10.35	4.60	3.01	3.71
	BC	4.0	2.0	8.91	2.59	2.27	1.96
	2C	4.4	0	4.78	1.21	0.83	0.91

¹⁾ Dithionite-extractable content

²⁾ Oxalate-extractable content

n.d. = not determined

Table 4
Surface ages of the investigation sites

Soil profile	y BP (^{14}C)	y calBP (OxCal) ¹	^{10}Be age (y)	Dated feature	References
Val di Rabbi	14410±110	16782 - 17839		stable OM of a lateral moraine (Oldest Dryas)	Favilli et al., 2009
Morteratsch			12460±1280	boulder on a lateral Egesen moraine	Maisch et al., 2005
Schmadri, profile 1	10390±150	11751 - 12788		intramorainal peat bog basis	Wipf, 2001
Schmadri, profile 2	3330±85	3381 - 3730		frontal moraine above a fossile soil	Wipf, 2001
Val Mulix			14690±1790	boulder on a lateral Daun moraine	Böhlert et al., submitted
Meggerwald		18000-19500		lateral and end moraines, glacial (retreat stadials at the end of the LGM ² : Hurden/Zürich stadial)	Hantke, 1983; Keller, 1988; Keller and Krayss, 2005; Maisch, 2000; Zwahlen, 2008

¹OxCal 4.1 calibration program (Bronk Ramsey, 2001) based on the IntCal 04 calibration curve (Reimer et al., 2004)

²LGM = Lateglacial maximum

Table 5
Cosmogenic nuclide inventories, estimated errors related to the estimation of the inventory and calculated age (including error range) using ¹⁰Be deposition rates as a function of the amount of precipitation (Maejima et al., 2005). A) shows the age using ¹⁰Be deposition rates as a function of the amount of precipitation and B) shows the calculated ages using a constant ¹⁰Be deposition rate (Willenbring and von Blanckenburg, 2009).

Site	¹⁰ Be inventory (1E+8; atoms/cm ²)	Estimated errors (1E+8; atoms/cm ²)			Total error (1E+8; atoms/cm ²)	A) Annual ¹⁰ Be deposition rate (atoms/cm ² ; 1E+6)	A) Calculated age (ky)	B) Annual ¹⁰ Be deposition rate (atoms/cm ² ; 1E+6)	B) Calculated age (ky)
		Measurement	Density	Soil skeleton					
Val di Rabbi	158.0	5.1	6.7	5.0	16.8	1.21	13.1±1.4	1.00	15.9±1.7
Morteratsch	125.8	7.7	6.3	5.8	19.8	1.33	9.5±1.5	1.00	12.6±2.0
Schmadri, profile 1	283.8	12.7	14.2	4.1	31.0	2.43	11.7±1.3	1.00	28.5±3.0
Schmadri, profile 2	147.3	5.5	7.4	19.1	32.0	2.43	6.0±1.3	1.00	14.7±3.2
Val Mulix	214.5	9.4	10.7	14.7	34.8	1.51	14.3±2.3	1.00	21.6±3.5
Meggerwald	301.0	17.2	9.0	3.7	29.9	1.57	19.2±1.7	1.00	30.3±2.7

Table 6

Estimated erosion rates using (a) ^{10}Be deposition rates as a function of precipitation and (b) ^{10}Be deposition rates as constant flux (according to Field et al., 2006; Heikkilä, 2007; Willenbring and von Blanckenburg, 2009) and acting on the assumption of a ^{10}Be background-value (pre-exposure).

Site	Measured inventory (^{10}Be atoms x 1E+8)	Expected inventory (^{10}Be atoms x 1E+8)	Erosion rate (mm/ky)
a)			
Val di Rabbi	158.0	206.5	13.8 – 14.9
Morteratsch	125.8	165.4	5.0 – 18.4
Schmadri, profile 1	283.8	290.7	1.3 – 2.1
Schmadri, profile 2	147.3	82.0	–
Val Mulix	214.5	221.2	4.3 – 6.2
Meggerwald	301.0	300.0	<1
b) ¹			
Val di Rabbi	83.1	172.3	26.7 – 30.5
Morteratsch	74.9	124.5	6.5 – 31.7
Schmadri, profile 1	108.4	122.5	2.7 – 4.1
Schmadri, profile 2	91.8	36	–
Val Mulix	115.9	144.5	5.5 – 57.1
Meggerwald	171.7	184.3	6.9 – 15.1

¹The ^{10}Be concentration in the lowest soil horizon is assumed to reflect the pre-exposure. The inventory is calculated using the concentrations of the individual soil horizons minus the value measured in the lowest horizon.